

and the connection of the cottage with the nearest public road. The cottage itself ought next to be examined as to plan and accommodation, height of the side walls, thickness of the walls, roof and gutters, floor, windows, stair, fireplace, bedrooms, exterior appearance, &c. The Report should then point out the additions and alterations necessary to render the cottage what it ought to be, illustrating these by plans, sections, and sketches, and giving lists of fruit-trees and shrubs, where these are wanted for the garden. Would that we could hear of some of the first landed proprietors in the country having such Reports made on the labourers' cottages, and the school-houses, on their estates! The practice would soon after become general, and the good that would ultimately result to the cottager and his children, and the accession of beauty, and appearance of comfort, to rural scenery, would be immense.

To be a possessor of landed property, we consider the greatest worldly privilege which any man can enjoy. No other kind of property is calculated to afford to the possessor so much rational enjoyment, whether in the occupation required for its cultivation and improvement, or in the recreation which it procures in its embellishment. In many, if not in most cases, landed property enables its owner to contribute, in a more immediate and direct manner than many other kinds of property, to the happiness of his fellow-creatures, by improving the dwellings of those who reside on it; and it enables him to procure the applause of the public, by combining improvement with embellishment in such a manner as to render his estate an ornament to the country in which it is situated. There are few or no landed estates which do not include a number of habitations; more or less scattered over the land, occupied by the humblest and most helpless class of society, common country labourers. These dwellings are in many places miserable within, and in few are they respectable without. Now our earnest desire is, to direct the attention of landed proprietors to this subject. On some estates the cottages may be already sufficiently comfortable; but in much the greater number we know that this is far from being the case; and what is lamentable, but nevertheless proved to be true beyond all doubt, is, that on those estates in which agriculture is arrived to the highest degree of perfection, for example, in the North of England and the South of Scotland, the cottages of the farmers' labourers are far worse than they are anywhere else. We would entreat landed proprietors to examine the cottages of their labourers themselves, or institute inquiry into their condition by competent persons.

We would suggest that increasing the comforts of the labourer's home is the most effectual means that can be taken, not only for rendering him a better member of society, but a better labourer; and there is, also, no doubt that he will be more likely to bring up his family in moral and industrious habits. It used to be alleged by some that increasing the comforts of cottagers only increased their numbers, and ultimately added to the mass of misery among this class; but this opinion has more recently been found to be erroneous, for thinking parents, who possess a strong sense of comfort and enjoyment, will not risk the diminution of the sources of happiness by burdening themselves with large families. As a proof of the effective working of this principle, we refer to those parts of Germany where the labouring population are highly educated, as for example, Austria, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Prussia.

The power of improving the health and adding to the comforts of a number of individuals, who in a great degree look up to and are dependent on us, must surely be a source of happiness to every rightly constituted mind. The increased attachment of the benefited party that will thus be produced ought surely to be a source of gratification; independently altogether of the increased value to the property, by more durable habitations, stronger and steadier workmen, and by families less likely to become paupers, vagrants, or pilferers.

The improvement of labourers' cottages recommends itself to the landed proprietor in another point of view, viz., the ornament which such cottages will confer on his estate. What can have a more miserable appearance than a wretched cottage out of repair, and

without a garden? No one blames the cottager for this state of things; but the idea of a thoughtless or inhuman landlord, or of an unfeeling mercenary agent, immediately occurs. What, on the contrary, gives a greater idea of comfort, and of an enlightened, benevolent landlord, than to see every cottage on his estate rearing its high steep roof and bold architectural chimney-tops, indicating ample room and warmth within; the whole in good repair, and surrounded by fruit-trees, in a well-stocked and neatly kept garden? Every one, in travelling through a country, must have observed how much of its beauty depends on the state of its cottages and their gardens. We would therefore entreat the possessors of landed property to consider how much of the beauty of the country depends upon them; and we would farther beg of them to ask themselves whether it is not one of the duties entailed on them by the possession of this property, to render it not only beneficial to their families and to all who live on it, but ornamental to the country.—*From Supplement to London's Encyclopedia of Architecture.*

PROFESSOR COCKERELL'S LECTURES AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY. No. II.

WHAT we admire in the Professor more, if possible, than the extent and profundity of his researches, his unvarnished industry, or the natural talent by which he has been qualified for the practice of his art, is that passion, amounting almost to a prejudice, with which he views and entertains every thing pertaining to it. A little more, and this very self would be lost in the pursuit of this all-absorbing object of his devotion. It is this quality, this spirit of chivalrous adherence, which makes him most fitted to lead in these days of coldly calculating utility,—hear him, how he speaks of the supremacy of architecture over every other pursuit of business and art which has engrossed the minds of men; can more be said of it than,

"That the development of the human faculties was exhibited in the history of architecture under its most favourable aspect. The art might be termed the epitome of civilization, the first fruits of social order and combination, of every discovery in science, and of every conception of beauty. Political history was of comparatively inferior interest, and betrayed, for the most part, the depravity of our species. The natural labours of man, those of agriculture, or commerce, their untiring succession, brief endurance, and disappointment, leave melancholy convictions; but in the occupation of architecture man finds the employment of those higher aspirations and idealities for which he feels himself born, as well as of his physical energies. Here he perceives that he has a soul; all his loftier conceptions—order, elevation, beauty, and immortality—are opened to his contemplation, and he seems to feel the power of extending his works and his memory beyond the bounds of nature and of time."

In this strain, and under the influence of a sentiment thus expressed, we find him all along asserting the claim of architecture to be regarded as the crowning stone of those great edifices, or eras of civilization, which the world has built up at various periods, and in her various countries, that after an apprenticeship, as he terms it, in the ruler and simpler exercises of manual and mental power, the full dignity of maturity came to be exhibited in this all-comprehensive science, as he says of the age of Alexander and the Romans.

"Man now contends with the elements. The ocean is curbed by his ports, and quays, and Pylæe; he cuts across its bosom; markets are drained, rivers, canals, aqueducts, and roads exhibit the mastery he had acquired, and his conquests over nature. Frontons, whose work on aqueducts was written about the year 80, has a passage remarkably illustrative of the growth of this spirit in his time. After giving a description of the nine aqueducts under his care, brought to Rome by successive labours, making an aggregate length of about 142 miles, he exclaims, 'With so many waters, and so many magnificent works necessary for their transport to this great city, will you compare the idle Pyramids of Egypt, or even the inert works of the Greeks, however celebrated and glorious in history?'"

As the Professor had chosen for his lecture for this evening the subject of sacred architecture to discuss which, however, in the

cursorry manner which the time at his disposal admitted of, might, as he said, almost savour of presumptuousness—

"He should call the attention of the students to two rolls (about sixteen feet long each), in the first of which the plans of the remarkable temples of the ancient world, from the Tabernacle in the Wilderness (1491 A. C.); to the reception of Christianity (313 A. C.); and in the second, those from that epoch down to 1812, were all laid down to the same scale. There was displayed, as it were, the genealogy of temple during 3330 years."

"The resemblance of the plan of the Tabernacle in the Wilderness, and with its surrounding court (the first in our series, &c. 1491), and still more, of the Temple of Solomon, with the arrangement of the Greek and Roman temple, down to the Antonines at the end of the second century of our era, is very remarkable. In the first the parallelogram is preceded by a portico of an irregular number, namely, of five columns. In the second (1012 A. C.), we have the Temple in Antia.

"If we enter into particulars, we are still more struck with their correspondence, we find, for instance, the irregular number in the Temple of Jupiter at Agrigento, one of the largest and most important of antiquity; seven columns compose the front; and we are reminded of Solomon's saying, (Prov. ix.) 'Wisdom has builded her house, she has built out her seven columns.' Again, at Peristum we have a temple (miscalled a basilica) with nine columns in the front. Other examples also might be cited. Again, of the Temple of Solomon, that of Themi at Ramous, and the frequent temple in Antia, with its pronave and thronon, is the constant copy. The altar of sacrifice, that of Incense, the laver, the table of show-bread, are all traced either in existing remains, in bas-reliefs, or in medals.

"The connexion of Sacred and Classic Architecture is thus apparent; and the author of 'The Paganisms of the Heathen Detected' (Mr. Wood, of Bath) is borne out in this comparison of the plan and arrangement of temple architecture. The common error (and one to which we are all liable) is the attempt to trace this resemblance in the style, in the orthographic figure of the parts and orders—the mere vestments of the scheme; and the failure in straining the texts and examples (Corinthian or Doric) to a perfect correspondence, either in Wood, Vitallandus, or his learned predecessor, Wilkins, has always thrown a doubt upon these interesting investigations; but the comparison of the plans makes the Tabernacle the type of the Greek and Roman temple, a work which Paul as well as Moses assumed us was inspired by the Deity; for we, with him, that they make all things according to the pattern showed thee in the mount." (Heb. viii.)

The Professor then goes on to state his conviction that the ritual of respective countries influenced and originated the form of the temple, tracing all back, however, to the era of the Jewish canon; but he mentions another great point of resemblance in the Jewish and classic architecture,—the employment of "costly stones, even great stones, stones of ten cubits, stones of eight cubits." "The ancient world," he says, "is full of examples of this remarkable principle, and the last and most signal one is the temple at Halber, by the Antonines, in which three stones measure in the aggregate upwards of 199 feet in length.

"Just consider this, good reader, concerning these three stones. Supposing them to have been all of equal length, then we have 66 feet 4 inches the length of each stone—22 yards each!"

The following is curious, and it is an instance too of the speculations which we find the Professor now and then indulging in, assigning to certain peculiar coincidences a mystic intention or meaning, which we would humbly take leave to suggest were more the result of innate laws of order and harmony. As in music we have our chords and unisons, so in architecture, the result of constructive propriety, and other determining circumstances, is that apparently studied uniformity which we now and then so frequently detect. But we must leave the Professor.

"Our remarks upon the uniform arrangement of plans of Greek and Roman temples would be too long, and must be referred to the publications upon them specifically; but as brought together in this view it may be observed, that the temple at Ephesus was of the same size which we learn alone from Pliny exceeds all others in dimensions, and the constant limitation of length of the great temple to Jupiter especially (at Athens, Agrigento, Selinus, Halber, and Rome) to about 350 feet in length, might lead us to suspect the text of Pliny. Vitruvius gives a few